



TITLE:

A mixed method study on the correlates of patient adherence to antiretroviral therapy in the Democratic Republic of Congo: implication of food insecurity(Dissertation_全文)

AUTHOR(S):

Patou Masika Musumari

CITATION:

Patou Masika Musumari. A mixed method study on the correlates of patient adherence to antiretroviral therapy in the Democratic Republic of Congo: implication of food insecurity. 京都大学, 2014, 博士(医学)

ISSUE DATE:

2014-03-24

URL:

<https://doi.org/10.14989/doctor.k18165>

RIGHT:



AIDS Care: Psychological and Socio-medical Aspects of AIDS/HIV

Publication details, including instructions for authors and subscription information:

<http://www.tandfonline.com/loi/caic20>

“If I have nothing to eat, I get angry and push the pills bottle away from me”: A qualitative study of patient determinants of adherence to antiretroviral therapy in the Democratic Republic of Congo

Patou Masika Musumari ^a, Mitchell D. Feldman ^b, Teeranee Techasrivichien ^a, Edwin Wouters ^c, Masako Ono-Kihara ^a & Masahiro Kihara ^a

^a Department of Global Health and Socio-Epidemiology, Kyoto University School of Public Health, Kyoto, Japan

^b Department of Medicine, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, CA, USA

^c Research Centre for Longitudinal and Life Course Studies, University of Antwerp, Antwerp, Belgium

Version of record first published: 06 Feb 2013.

To cite this article: Patou Masika Musumari, Mitchell D. Feldman, Teeranee Techasrivichien, Edwin Wouters, Masako Ono-Kihara & Masahiro Kihara (2013): “If I have nothing to eat, I get angry and push the pills bottle away from me”: A qualitative study of patient determinants of adherence to antiretroviral therapy in the Democratic Republic of Congo, *AIDS Care: Psychological and Socio-medical Aspects of AIDS/HIV*, DOI:10.1080/09540121.2013.764391

To link to this article: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09540121.2013.764391>

PLEASE SCROLL DOWN FOR ARTICLE

Full terms and conditions of use: <http://www.tandfonline.com/page/terms-and-conditions>

This article may be used for research, teaching, and private study purposes. Any substantial or systematic reproduction, redistribution, reselling, loan, sub-licensing, systematic supply, or distribution in any form to anyone is expressly forbidden.

The publisher does not give any warranty express or implied or make any representation that the contents will be complete or accurate or up to date. The accuracy of any instructions, formulae, and drug doses should be independently verified with primary sources. The publisher shall not be liable for any loss, actions, claims, proceedings, demand, or costs or damages whatsoever or howsoever caused arising directly or indirectly in connection with or arising out of the use of this material.

“If I have nothing to eat, I get angry and push the pills bottle away from me”: A qualitative study of patient determinants of adherence to antiretroviral therapy in the Democratic Republic of Congo

Patou Masika Musumari^{a*}, Mitchell D. Feldman^b, Teeranee Techasrivichien^a, Edwin Wouters^c, Masako Ono-Kihara^a and Masahiro Kihara^a

^a*Department of Global Health and Socio-Epidemiology, Kyoto University School of Public Health, Kyoto, Japan;* ^b*Department of Medicine, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, CA, USA;* ^c*Research Centre for Longitudinal and Life Course Studies, University of Antwerp, Antwerp, Belgium*

(Received 28 June 2012; final version received 1 January 2013)

The global response to the HIV/AIDS epidemic has improved access to antiretroviral therapy (ART) and has contributed to decreased HIV/AIDS morbidity and mortality in sub-Saharan Africa. Patient adherence to ART is crucial to the success of HIV/AIDS treatment. However, little is known about the determinants of adherence to ART among people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA) in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). This qualitative study used in-depth semi-structured patient interviews, a purposive sampling strategy and thematic analysis scheme to identify barriers and facilitators of adherence to ART in the DRC. We recruited three categories of participants from the Centre Hospitalier Monkole and the NGO ACS/Amo-Congo including participants on antiretroviral (ARV) treatment ($n = 19$), on ARV re-treatment ($n = 13$) and lost to follow-up ($n = 6$). Among 38 participants interviewed, 24 were female and the median age was 41 years. Food insecurity as a barrier to adherence emerged as a dominant theme across the three categories of participants. Other barriers included financial constraints, forgetfulness and fear of disclosure/stigma. Religious beliefs were both a barrier and a facilitator to ART adherence. We found that food insecurity was a common and an important barrier to ART adherence among patients in the DRC. Our findings suggest that food insecurity should be appropriately addressed and incorporated into ARV treatment programs to ensure patient adherence and ultimately the long-term success of HIV treatment in the region.

Keywords: ART; adherence; food insecurity; AIDS; Democratic Republic of Congo

Introduction

Access to antiretroviral therapy (ART) in sub-Saharan Africa has improved considerably over the past several years and has contributed to decreased HIV/AIDS morbidity and mortality in the region (Brinkhof et al., 2009; Mills et al., 2011; UNAIDS, 2012). However, in addition to treatment access, high and sustained patient adherence to ART is sine qua non for maximizing both its therapeutic and preventive benefits (Kalichman et al., 2010; Paterson et al., 2000).

Prior studies have documented a number of determinants of adherence to ART, ranging from economic and structural to sociocultural factors, as well as factors such as the complexity of the regimen, side effects; forgetfulness and inadequate knowledge (Badahdah & Pedersen, 2011; Balcha, Jeppsson, & Bekele, 2011; Curioso, Kepka, Cabello, Segura, & Kurth, 2010; Hardon et al., 2007; Mills et al., 2006; Mshana et al., 2006; Tsai & Bangsberg, 2011; Tuller

et al., 2009; Wanyama et al., 2007). However, there are still important research gaps which need to be addressed.

Previous studies have not examined adherence to ART among patients with different treatment profiles; this approach might allow new insights into factors that constrain and facilitate ART adherence. In addition, there is a very limited literature on ART adherence in Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) which remarkably restricts our understanding of factors associated with ART adherence, and renders studies on ART adherence in the DRC a research priority.

This qualitative study expands on the current available knowledge and address the above cited research gaps by exploring barriers and facilitators of adherence to ART in three different groups of participants including those on ART with no history of treatment interruption, on ART with history of treatment interruption and those lost to follow-up in the DRC's sociocultural context.

*Corresponding author. Email: musumari.patou.26x@st.kyoto-u.ac.jp

Methods

Participants

The study was conducted in Kinshasa, the DRC in March 2011. Participants were recruited from two health facilities, the Centre Hospitalier Monkole (CHM) and the NGO Actions Communautaires Sida/Avenir Meilleur pour les Orphelins (ACS/Amo-Congo) through a maximum variation, purposive sampling strategy (Bowers, House, & Owen, 2011). Our participants consisted of (1) participants who successfully completed at least six months of treatment since antiretroviral (ARV) treatment initiation, herein referred as participants *on ARV treatment*, (2) participants who were on ARV re-treatment after at least one month of ART interruption, referred to as participants *on ARV re-treatment*, and (3) participants who were *lost to follow-up*. We considered as lost to follow-up, participants who were unable to show up for ARV refills for three consecutive months (90 days) after the date of the last medical appointment. To be eligible for inclusion in the study, participants had to be at least 18 years old, HIV positive, and belong to one of the aforementioned categories. Subjects were recruited when they attended the health centers for routine medical examination or when refilling their monthly ART prescription. Participants from the lost to follow-up group were recruited through phone calls made to mobile numbers that were available on their medical files. The research team conducted additional outreach to patients lost to follow-up who could not be reached through phone calls, using addresses from medical files. Upon explaining the purpose of the study and assuring strict confidentiality, all participants provided written informed consent and completed a questionnaire on sociodemographic characteristics prior to conducting interviews. Participants were compensated for their time and transportation with an amount of 10 US dollars. This study was granted ethical approval from the Committee for Research on Human Subjects at Kyoto University and the Kinshasa School of Public Health Ethics Review Committee in the DRC.

Data collection and analysis

A literature review of ART adherence informed the development of a semi-structured interview guide. The interview guide was designed to explore topics related to participants' experiences, beliefs, behaviors, opinions, and knowledge about HIV/AIDS and ART. Probes were used to gain detailed insights and facilitate emergence of new themes. Specific questions explored reasons for medication interruption, cues to

restart ART among participants on ARV re-treatment and reasons for dropping out and barriers to restarting ART among patients lost to follow-up. A preliminary insight of data were obtained through debriefing sessions conducted at the end of each interview to note the main emerging themes and to plan how to address those themes more effectively in subsequent interviews. Interviews lasted from 25 minutes to 1 hour and were conducted in French and Lingala, the most commonly used languages in Kinshasa.

Interviews were digitally recorded, then transcribed verbatim and translated into English. All the transcripts were reviewed for accuracy by comparing with the recordings. Field notes and data-set transcripts constituted the final material for analysis. Data were manually analyzed using a thematic-analysis approach. This approach involves getting familiarized with the data through an iterative process of reading the data-set transcripts, generating initial codes, arranging codes into larger categories, drawing connections between codes and categories until generation of a saturated thematic map of the analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The analytical process included a separate data analysis of participants on ARV treatment, re-treatment and, lost to follow-up, allowing new insights into determinants of ART adherence across the three categories of participants. Initially, two investigators (PMM & TT) independently coded the transcripts and identified emerging themes relevant to the research question. Discrepancies in coding were discussed and resolved by consensus and codes were organized into larger categories. In the second phase, codes, and categories were revised and refined through regular meetings with an expert panel (MDF, MOK & MK). Quotes from the participants are provided in support of the themes we identified and are lightly edited for ease of reading. Efforts were made to not substantially alter the contents of the quotes.

Results

Description of study participants

Thirty-eight participants were interviewed, considering the sample size of 5–25 participants potentially needed to achieve thematic saturation from previous studies (Creswell, 2007). Nineteen participants (50%) were currently on ARV treatment, 13 (34%) on ARV re-treatment, and 6 (16%) were lost to follow-up. The median age of participants was 41 years; most had completed primary education but were without standard employment and had a monthly income of less

than 20 US dollars. Almost half reported having irregular meals (Table 1).

Barriers to adherence

We found an overall similarity in the pattern of themes that emerged across the three categories of participants (Table 2).

Food insecurity

Food insecurity was the most common theme that emerged both as a day-to-day barrier to ART adherence among participants from ARV treatment and re-treatment group and as one of the principal reasons for ART interruption among participants from the ARV re-treatment and lost to follow-up group. Participants described two pathways through which food insecurity constrained adherence to ART: (1) experiencing increased ART side effects and (2) the belief that ART does not work or is harmful when taken without food. Several participants reported experiencing uncomfortable side effects when they took her medication on an empty stomach. One participant said:

Table 1. Sample characteristics.

Variable	N = 38	%
Age in years (median) 41		
Gender		
Male	14	36.8
Female	24	63.2
Marital status		
Single, separated	13	34.2
Married, cohabitating	21	55.3
Widow/widower	4	10.5
Treatment category		
On ARV treatment	19	50.0
On ARV re-treatment	13	35.2
Lost to follow-up	6	15.8
Education level		
None	2	5.3
Primary	8	21.1
Secondary	20	52.6
University	8	21.1
Profession		
With employment	13	34.2
Without employment	25	65.8
Monthly income		
< 20\$	17	44.7
20–100\$	17	44.7
> 100\$	4	10.5
Meal/day		
Regular (≥ 2 meals)	22	57.9
Irregular (≤ 1 meal)	16	42.1

Table 2. Summary of themes by treatment category.

Themes	Treatment category		
	On ARV treatment	On ARV re-treatment	Lost to follow-up
Food insecurity	✓ –	✓ –	✓ –
Financial insecurity	✓ –	✓ –	✓ –
Forgetfulness	✓ –	✓ –	✓ –
Fear of disclosure/stigma	✓ –	✓ –	✓ –
Religious beliefs	✓ +	✓ ±	✓ –
Others			
Travel/migration		✓ –	✓ –
Feeling hopeless		✓ –	✓ –
Side effects	✓ –	✓ –	✓ –
Alcohol	✓ –		✓ –
Traditional medicines		✓ –	✓ –

✓ indicates in rank order the themes that emerged and affected ART adherence.

– indicates a barrier of adherence to ART.

+ indicates a facilitator of adherence to ART.

It's very tough to take the pills when there is nothing to eat. I made two weeks I was not taking the pills. When I took them without food I had stomach aches. (41-year-old female on ARV treatment)

The belief that the medicines are not effective or harmful when taken on an empty stomach also affected adherence to ART:

The only problem is just about eating. You need to eat for this treatment to work. If I have no food I don't take pills. Like today I didn't take my pills because I couldn't eat (35-year-old female on ARV re-treatment)

The medication can be good but can also be bad for the body if you take them without foods. Taking pills without eating can actually cause much damage in your body. (63-year-old male lost to follow-up)

Food insecurity was a daily concern and a source of frustration for participants and their family members. As one participant stated:

I really have financial problems; I don't know what to do. Sometimes I am just fed up, mainly if I have nothing to eat, I get angry and push the pills bottle away from me. (45-year-old female on treatment)

Financial insecurity

Another important theme that impacted adherence was financial insecurity. Participants expressed

difficulty securing money for transportation to attend clinical visits or other medical-related expenses such as medical tests or clinical examination fees. This resulted in some of them missing their medication refill appointments or temporarily interrupting their medication. Moreover, we noted that other medical-related expenses constituted a barrier to restarting ART among patients lost to follow-up. Although both health facilities offered ART free of charge, participants still had to pay for other ancillary costs. For example, a 48-year-old male participant who interrupted ART after relocating in the hinterland of Congo explained his difficulties in restarting the treatment when he came back to the city of Kinshasa:

I was discouraged when I learned from somebody that there (meaning the health facility) they ask 25\$ for the CD4 test. I was really trying to figure out how to take contact with the health facility for restarting my treatment until when you contacted me. (48-year-old male lost to follow-up)

Participants sometimes had to balance between allocating their very limited budget on either their medical expenses or on household needs such as paying for children's education or securing food for the household. One participant said:

At a certain time I stopped taking my medication because I had many financial problems, I had to take care of children's education and moreover you need to eat when you take those pills. (48-year-old male on ARV re-treatment)

Forgetfulness

Forgetfulness was a common reason for skipping doses among participants from all the categories. In a few instances, forgetfulness resulted in taking more than the prescribed dose. One participant said:

Sometimes, it happens that I forget that I have already taken my evening pills; in that case I will take another one just to be sure I don't miss. I notice that when I run out of pills before the next appointment for treatment refill and then I just remember that I took more than two doses the other day. (44-year-old male on ARV treatment)

Fear of disclosure/stigma

Participants often did not disclose their HIV status out of fear of rejection and gossip. Some participants pointed to stigma as a potential barrier to ART adherence; however, this did not affect adherence inasmuch as most of them used coping strategies such as taking pills secretly or faking the name of pills when asked. In contrast, a number of participants

admitted to interrupting their medication out of fear of inadvertently disclosing their HIV status. One participant said:

I was not here (meaning that she was not at home). I went to live at my grandparents' place; over there they were not aware of my disease, so I didn't want them to know. (28-year-old female on ARV re-treatment)

Religious and traditional beliefs

Religious beliefs were both a barrier and a facilitator of ART adherence. The belief that one's disease was caused by witchcraft led a few participants from the ARV re-treatment and lost to follow-up groups to interrupt their medication and to use prayers and/or traditional medicines in search for potential cure. On the other hand, many participants sustained the belief that it is God who provided the knowledge to make ARVs; this mindset motivated them to keep adhering to the treatment:

I am a Christian and a believer, I know that God exists but those medicines also were inspired by God. God is the one who gave inspiration to doctors to make those medicines for us. (59-year-old male on ARV treatment)

Those medicines just give you strength but God is the one who cures. Because it is God who gave you intelligence to find out medicines, so through medicines I can get cured; before putting the pills in your mouth you must have faith. (37-year-old female on ARV re-treatment)

Other barriers

Other reported barriers included travel or migration, feeling hopeless, side effects, and the use of traditional medicines. Other participants reported delaying or skipping ART doses after alcohol consumption.

Discussion

This is the first qualitative study to examine ART adherence correlates among HIV-positive people with different treatment experiences, and the first to examine adherence among HIV-infected adults in Kinshasa, DRC. We found that food insecurity was the most frequently reported barrier to ART adherence among our participants. Previous studies on ART adherence have identified food insecurity as a contributing factor of nonadherence to ART, but none of these prior studies examined barriers to ART adherence among participants with different treatment experiences (Hardon et al., 2007; Nagata et al.,

2012; Sanjobo, Frich, & Fretheim, 2008; Weiser et al., 2010). Our study purposively selected participants with different treatment profiles, namely participants who were on ARV treatment, re-treatment, and lost to follow-up. Examining adherence barriers exclusively with participants on ARV may reveal only a partial picture of barriers to ART adherence; since this group represents participants who have so far managed to adhere to treatment so, barriers identified essentially reflect those that interfere with day-to-day ART adherence. Thus, knowledge on these two last patients groups is vital as poor adherence and ART interruption foster emergence of HIV drug resistance, which, besides affecting long-term effectiveness of ART at the individual level, raises serious public health implications with potential transmission of drug-resistant strains of HIV (Danel et al., 2009; Gupta et al., 2012; Lima et al., 2008; Luebbert et al., 2012).

Participants reported skipping ART doses in the absence of food; this held true for participants in the ARV treatment and re-treatment groups. In addition, participants in the ARV re-treatment and lost to follow-up groups identified food insecurity among the main reasons for their treatment interruption.

Food insecurity is associated with a number of adverse health behaviors. For instance, a previous study found increased risky sexual behaviors among food-insecure women in Botswana and Swaziland (Weiser et al., 2007). Moreover, food insecurity was shown to be associated with unsuppressed viral load which may lead to treatment failure (Wang et al., 2011). These findings suggest that effective strategies to promote food access to patients on ART should be implemented in order to curtail the negative effects of food insecurity on ART adherence in the DRC. For example, nutritional support to food-insecure patients was shown to improve both ART adherence and patient retention in care in sub-Saharan Africa (Cantrell et al., 2008).

Additionally, addressing financial constraints is also critically important in improving adherence to ART. These results are in line with a recent study in Mozambique which showed that adherence to ART and patient retention in care improved when patients were organized in small groups, and collected pills for all the members on a rotating basis to reduce the cost of transportation (Decroo et al., 2010).

We also found that stigma and fear of disclosure were barriers to ART adherence. Most participants kept their HIV status secret and revealed it only in a very restricted social network such as the immediate family. Although patients listed stigma and fear of disclosure as a barrier to ART adherence, this did not seem to decrease their actual adherence since many of them used strategies such as disguising or taking their

medication secretly to avoid disclosure. However, such strategies were more difficult to sustain over long periods of time in an environment which they considered hostile for disclosure; for example, when patients relocated to a relative's home, then resolved to interrupt medication to avoid unintentional disclosure.

We found that religious beliefs were both a barrier and facilitator of ART adherence. Previous studies have identified beliefs in spiritual healing and/or beliefs around the causes of HIV to impact negatively on ART adherence (Mshana et al., 2006; Roura et al., 2009; Wanyama et al., 2007). Participants who believed their disease was caused by witchcraft interrupted their medication to seek healing through prayers and/or traditional medicine. Conversely, some patients thought of ART as an expression of God's knowledge transmitted to care providers, and this was sufficient incentive for them to stick with medication. These findings fit with the social context of the DRC where religious and spiritual beliefs are essential components of people's lives (Maman, Cathcart, Burkhardt, Omba, & Behets, 2009). Addressing religious barriers in interventions designed to promote adherence to ART in such settings might help to improve patient retention in ART programs. Faith-based organizations can positively impact on ART adherence by promoting ARVs as a divine tool to fight HIV/AIDS.

Our study has some limitations. First, there might be a selection bias with participants lost to follow-up. A significant number of lost to follow-up were reported dead suggesting that those we recruited might represent a specific group of survivors with different views and experiences. Second, participants were all selected from private health facilities that supplied ARVs free of charge. It is possible that participants from the public health sector may offer another picture of barriers of adherence to ART, especially in settings where ARVs are not free. Finally, although we believe that our results may be extended to similar settings; it is unclear to what extent they can be applied in different contexts in sub-Saharan Africa.

However, this study is unique in that it captures diverse perspectives of determinants of adherence to ART from participants with different treatment profiles. In addition, we found that in response to the same adherence barrier, participants adopted different medication taking behavioral trajectories namely the interruption or just skipping a daily dose of their medication. Furthermore, it would not have been possible to unveil the negative impact of religious beliefs, travel/migration, feeling hopeless, and traditional medicines on ART adherence if we

examined adherence only with participants in the ARV treatment group.

Conclusion

We found that food insecurity emerged as a common and an important barrier to ART adherence among patients in the DRC. HIV treatment and care programs should comprehensively address food insecurity in the context of other sociocultural-related factors to ensure patient adherence to ART and ultimately long-term success of HIV treatment in the region.

Acknowledgements

This study was sponsored by the Department of Global Health and Socio-Epidemiology of the Kyoto University School of Public Health. We especially acknowledge and thank the participants of this study as well as the health personnel at the CHM, Codec and ACS/Amo-Congo for making this study possible. We extend our great appreciation to Dr Barthélemy Kamba, Dr Henri Mukumbi, Dr Léon Tshilolo, Dr Adolphe Ndarabu, Dr Baron Ngasia, Dr Aimé Mboyo, Dr Kayembe Patrick, Dr François Lepira, Dr Modeste Kiumbu, Dr Saman Zamani and Dr Samy Mbikayi.

References

- Badahdah, A. M., & Pedersen, D. E. (2011). "I want to stand on my own legs": A qualitative study of antiretroviral therapy adherence among HIV-positive women in Egypt. *AIDS Care*, 23(6), 700–704. doi:10.1080/09540121.2010.534431
- Balcha, T. T., Jeppsson, A., & Bekele, A. (2011). Barriers to antiretroviral treatment in Ethiopia: A qualitative study. *Journal of the International Association of Physicians in AIDS Care Health*, 10(2), 119–125. doi:10.1177/1545109710387674
- Bowers, D., House, A., & Owens, D. (2011). *Getting started in health research*. Chichester, UK: Wiley, Blackwell.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3, 77–101. doi:10.1191/1478088706qp063oa
- Brinkhof, M. W. G., Boule, A., Weigel, R., Messou, E., Mathers, C., Orrell, C., ... Egger, M. (2009). Mortality of HIV-infected patients starting antiretroviral therapy in sub-Saharan Africa: Comparison with HIV-unrelated mortality. *PLoS Medicine*, 6(4), e1000066. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1000066
- Cantrell, R. A., Sinkala, M., Megazinni, K., Lawson-Marriott, S., Washington, S., Chi, B. H., ... Stringer, J. S. (2008). A pilot study of food supplementation to improve adherence to antiretroviral therapy among food-insecure adults in Lusaka, Zambia. *JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes*, 49, 190–195. doi:10.1097/QAI.0b013e31818455d2
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Curioso, W., Kepka, D., Cabello, R., Segura, P., & Kurth, A. E. (2010). Understanding the facilitators and barriers of antiretroviral adherence in Peru: A qualitative study. *BMC Public Health*, 10, 13. doi:10.1186/1471-2458-10-13
- Danel, C., Moh, R., Chaix, M., Gabillard, D., Gnokoro, J., Diby, C., ... Anglaret, X. (2009). Two-months-off, four-months-on antiretroviral regimen increases the risk of resistance, compared with continuous therapy: A randomized trial involving West African adults. *The Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 199, 66–67. doi:10.1086/595298
- Decroo, T., Telfer, B., Biot, M., Maïkéré, J., Dezembro, S., Cumba, L. I., ... Ford, N. (2010). Distribution of antiretroviral treatment through self-forming groups of patients in Tete province, Mozambique. *JAIDS Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes*, 56(2), e39–e44. doi:10.1097/QAI.0b013e3182055138
- Gupta, R. K., Jordan, M. R., Sultan, B. M., Hill, A., Davis, D. H. J., Gregson, J., ... Bertagnolio, S. (2012). Global trends in antiretroviral resistance in treatment-naïve individuals with HIV after rollout of antiretroviral treatment in resource-limited settings: A global collaborative study and meta-regression analysis. *The Lancet*, 380, 1250–1258. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(12)61038-1
- Hardon, A. P., Akurut, D., Comoro, C., Ekezie, C., Irunde, H. F., Gerrits, T., ... Laing, R. (2007). Hunger, waiting time and transport costs: Time to confront challenges to ART adherence in Africa. *AIDS Care*, 19(5), 658–665. doi:10.1080/09540120701244943
- Kalichman, S. C., Cherry, C., Amaral, C. M., Swetzes, C., Eaton, L., Macy, R., ... Kalichman, M. O. (2010). Adherence to antiretroviral therapy and HIV transmission risks: Implications for test-and-treat approaches to HIV prevention. *AIDS Patient Care STDs*, 24(5), 271–277. doi:10.1089/apc.2009.0309
- Lima, V. D., Harrigan, R., Murray, M., Moore, D. M., Wood, E., Hogg, R. S., & Montaner, J. S. G. (2008). Differential impact of adherence on long-term treatment response among naïve HIV-infected individuals. *AIDS*, 22, 2371–2380. doi:10.1097/QAD.0b013e328315cdd3
- Luebbert, J., Tweya, H., Phiri, S., Chaweza, T., Mwafilaso, J., Hosseinipour, M. C., ... Neuhaus, F. (2012). Virological failure and drug resistance in patients on antiretroviral therapy after treatment interruption in Lilongwe, Malawi. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 55(3), 441–448. doi:10.1093/cid/cis438
- Maman, S., Cathcart, R., Burkhardt, G., Omba, S., & Behets, F. (2009). The role of religion in HIV-positive women's disclosure experiences and coping strategies in Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo. *Social Science & Medicine*, 68, 965–970. doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2008.12.028
- Mills, E. J., Bakanda, C., Birungi, J., Chan, K., Ford, N., Cooper, C. L., ... Hogg, R. S. (2011). Life expectancy

- of persons receiving combination antiretroviral therapy in low-income countries: A cohort analysis from Uganda. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, 155, 209–216. doi:10.1059/0003-4819-155-4-201108160-00358
- Mills, E. J., Nachega, J. B., Bangsberg, D. R., Singh, S., Rachlis, B., Wu, P., ... Cooper, C. (2006). Adherence to HAART: A systematic review of developed and developing nation patient-reported barriers and facilitators. *PLoS Medicine*, 3(11), e438. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.0030438
- Mshana, G., Plummer, M. L., Wamoyi, J., Shigongo, Z. S., Ross, D. A., & Wight, D. (2006). “She was bewitched and caught an illness similar to AIDS”: AIDS and sexually transmitted infection causation beliefs in rural northern Tanzania. *Culture, Health & Sexuality*, 8, 45–58. doi:10.1080/13691050500469731
- Nagata, J. M., Magerenge, R. O., Young, S. L., Oguta, J. O., Weiser, S. D., & Cohen, C. R. (2012). Social determinants, lived experiences, and consequences of household food insecurity among persons living with HIV/AIDS on the shore of Lake Victoria, Kenya. *AIDS Care*, 24(6), 728–736. doi:10.1080/09540121.2011.630358
- Paterson, D. L., Swindells, S., Mohr, J., Brester, M., Vergis, E. N., Squier, C., ... Singh, N. (2000). Adherence to protease inhibitor therapy and outcomes in patients with HIV infection. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, 133(1), 21–30.
- Roura, M., Busza, J., Wringe, A., Mbata, D., Urassa, M., & Zaba, B. (2009). Barriers to sustaining antiretroviral treatment in Kisesa, Tanzania: A follow-up study to understand attrition from the antiretroviral program. *AIDS Patient Care and STDs*, 23(3), 203–210. doi:10.1089/apc.2008.0129
- Sanjogo, N., Frich, J. C., & Fretheim, A. (2008). Barriers and facilitators to patients’ adherence to antiretroviral treatment in Zambia: A qualitative study. *Sahara-J: Journal of Social Aspects of HIV/AIDS Research Alliance*, 5, 136–143. doi:10.1080/17290376.2008.9724912
- Tsai, A. C., & Bangsberg, D. R. (2011). The importance of social ties in sustaining medication adherence in resource-limited settings. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, 26(12), 1391–1393. doi:10.1007/s11606-011-1841-3
- Tuller, D. M., Bangsberg, D. R., Senkungu, J., Ware, N. C., Emenyonu, N., & Weiser, S. D. (2009). Transportation costs impede sustained adherence and access to HAART in a clinic population in southwestern Uganda: A qualitative study. *AIDS and Behavior*, 14(4), 778–784. doi:10.1007/s10461-009-9533-2
- UNAIDS. (2012). *Report on the global AIDS epidemic*. Retrieved from http://www.unaids.org/globalreport/Global_report.htm
- Wang, E., McGinnis, K., Fiellin, D., Goulet, J., Bryant, K., Gibert, C., ... Justice, A. C. (2011). Food insecurity is associated with poor virologic response among HIV-infected patients receiving antiretroviral medications. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, 26, 1012–1018. doi:10.1007/s11606-011-1723-8
- Wanyama, J., Castelnuovo, B., Wandera, B., Mwebaze, P., Kambugu, A., Bangsberg, D., & Kamya, M. (2007). Belief in divine healing can be a barrier to antiretroviral therapy adherence in Uganda. *AIDS*, 21(11), 1486–1487. doi:10.1097/QAD.0b013e32823ecf7f
- Weiser, S. D., Leiter, K., Bangsberg, D. R., Butler, L. M., Percy-de Korte, F., Hlanze, Z., ... Heisler, M. (2007). Food insufficiency is associated with high-risk sexual behavior among women in Botswana and Swaziland. *PLoS Medicine*, 4(10), e260. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.0040260
- Weiser, S. D., Tuller, D. M., Frongillo, E. A., Senkungu, J., Mukiibi, N., & Bangsberg, D. R. (2010). Food insecurity as a barrier to sustained antiretroviral therapy adherence in Uganda. *PLoS ONE*, 5(4), e10340. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0010340

Food Insecurity Is Associated with Increased Risk of Non-Adherence to Antiretroviral Therapy among HIV-Infected Adults in the Democratic Republic of Congo: A Cross-Sectional Study

Patou Masika Musumari^{1*}, Edwin Wouters², Patrick Kalambayi Kayembe³, Modeste Kiumbu Nzita³, Samclide Mutindu Mbikayi⁴, S. Pilar Suguimoto¹, Teeranee Techasrivichien¹, Bhukumusa Wellington Lukhele¹, Christina El-saaidi¹, Peter Piot⁵, Masako Ono-Kihara¹, Masahiro Kihara¹

1 Department of Global Health and Socio-epidemiology, Kyoto University School of Public Health, Kyoto, Japan, **2** Department of Sociology, Research Centre for Longitudinal and Life Course Studies, University of Antwerp, Antwerp, Belgium, **3** Kinshasa University School of Public Health, University of Kinshasa, Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo, **4** Centre Hospitalier Monkole, Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo, **5** London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, London, United Kingdom

Abstract

Background: Food insecurity is increasingly reported as an important barrier of patient adherence to antiretroviral therapy (ART) in both resource-poor and rich settings. However, unlike in resource rich-settings, very few quantitative studies to date have investigated the association of food insecurity with patient adherence to ART in Sub-Saharan Africa. The current study examines the association between food insecurity and adherence to ART among HIV-infected adults in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC).

Methods and Findings: This is a cross-sectional quantitative study of patients receiving ART at three private and one public health facilities in Kinshasa, DRC. Participants were consecutively recruited into the study between April and November 2012. Adherence was measured using a combined method coupling pharmacy refill and self-reported adherence. Food insecurity was the primary predictor, and was assessed using the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS). Of the 898 participants recruited into the study, 512 (57%) were food insecure, and 188 (20.9%) were not adherent to ART. Food insecurity was significantly associated with non-adherence to ART (AOR, 2.06; CI, 1.38–3.09). We also found that perceived harmfulness of ART and psychological distress were associated respectively with increased (AOR, 1.95; CI, 1.15–3.32) and decreased (AOR, 0.31; CI, 0.11–0.83) odds of non-adherence to ART.

Conclusion: Food insecurity is prevalent and a significant risk factor for non-adherence to ART among HIV-infected individuals in the DRC. Our findings highlight the urgent need for strategies to improve food access among HIV-infected on ART in order to ensure patient adherence to ART and ultimately the long-term success of HIV treatment in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Citation: Musumari PM, Wouters E, Kayembe PK, Kiumbu Nzita M, Mbikayi SM, et al. (2014) Food Insecurity Is Associated with Increased Risk of Non-Adherence to Antiretroviral Therapy among HIV-Infected Adults in the Democratic Republic of Congo: A Cross-Sectional Study. PLoS ONE 9(1): e85327. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0085327

Editor: Omar Sued, Fundacion Huesped, Argentina

Received: August 21, 2013; **Accepted:** November 25, 2013; **Published:** January 15, 2014

Copyright: © 2014 Musumari et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Funding: This study was sponsored by the Department of Global Health and Socio-epidemiology of the Kyoto University School of Public Health. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing Interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

* E-mail: patoumus@yahoo.fr

Introduction

The benefits of antiretroviral therapy (ART) in reducing HIV/AIDS related-morbidity and mortality are extensively documented [1–3]. Recent evidence indicates that early initiation of ART substantially reduces sexual transmission of HIV at individual [4,5] and population levels [6]; conferring ART a crucial place in both treatment and prevention of HIV/AIDS.

Prior studies have shown that, without high and sustained adherence levels, both therapeutic and public health benefits of ART cannot be secured, and that individuals with sub-optimal levels of adherence have higher risk of incomplete viral

suppression, disease progression, and development of drug resistance [7–9].

Our understanding of adherence to ART has substantially increased over the past years with a wide documented range of factors influencing ART adherence across differing settings in developed and developing countries [10–17]. Recently, food insecurity has emerged as a key structural barrier that affects adherence to ART in both resource-rich and constrained settings. Studies from British Columbia [18], San Francisco [19], Atlanta [20,21], and France [22] have found lower levels of medication adherence among food insecure individuals on ART. Similarly, a number of, predominantly qualitative, studies from Sub-Saharan

Africa (SSA) have documented food insecurity as an important barrier to ART adherence [12,23–26]. Furthermore, food insecurity was shown to be independently related to poor virologic response and mortality even when adjusting for patient adherence to ART [19,27,28].

Food insecurity parallels, and is viciously intertwined with the AIDS epidemic in SSA, both having a damaging impact in the region [29]. SSA accounts for 69% of the people infected with HIV worldwide, and is home to 234 million (26.8%) people classified as undernourished [1,30]. In the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), the research setting of the current study, the Multi Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) revealed that approximately 33% of the households were experiencing food insecurity in 2010, with figures ranging from 5% in the Kinshasa City to nearly 60% in some eastern provinces of the DRC [31]. The national HIV program reports a HIV prevalence of 2.57% among the general population, with only 12.3% of eligible patients having access to ART [32].

A review of the literature revealed that, unlike in resource-rich settings, very few quantitative studies to date, using a validated measure of food insecurity, have documented the association between food insecurity and patient adherence to ART in SSA and the developing world at large [26,33]. Additionally, literature on patient adherence to ART in the DRC, the second largest country in Africa, remains exceptionally scarce. In our preliminary qualitative study, we found that food insecurity, financial constraints, forgetfulness, and fear of disclosure/stigma were common barriers to ART adherence; while religious beliefs were both a barrier and facilitator of ART adherence among HIV-positive adults in the DRC [23].

The current study, grounded in the results of our qualitative study [23], aims at quantitatively assessing factors associated with adherence and more specifically, documenting the prevalence of food insecurity, and its effect on ART adherence among HIV-positive adults receiving ART in the DRC. Such information is crucial for guiding context-specific interventions to promote patient adherence to ART.

Methods

Ethics Statement

This study was granted ethical approval from the Committee for Research on Human Subjects at Kyoto University and the Kinshasa University School of Public Health Ethics Review Committee in the DRC. All the participants provided written informed consents before being interviewed.

Study Design, Participants and Setting

This is a cross-sectional study conducted in Kinshasa, DRC, between April and November 2012. Participants were consecutively recruited into the study from one public health facility: Hôpital Provincial Général de Référence de Kinshasa (HGPRK) and three private health institutions which included one treatment site of the NGO Actions Communautaires Sida/Avenir Meilleur pour les Orphelins (ACS/Amo-Congo), three treatment sites of the Armée du salut (Salvation Army), and two treatment sites of the Centre Hospitalier Monkole (CHM). Recruitment sites were in geographically dispersed locations and served patients coming from all the townships of Kinshasa. At the time the study was conducted, around 1,000, 2,900, 2,300, and 1,100 patients were receiving free ART respectively at the HGPRK, ACS/Amo-Congo, Armée du salut, and the CHM, and none of the facilities provided food or any kind of nutrition aid to patients. We collected data using an interviewer-administered questionnaire, which we

designed based on the findings from our prior qualitative study [23] supplemented with other relevant questions obtained from the available literature [34–38]. The questionnaire was piloted in a sample of 20 respondents (not included in the final sample) to ensure clarity prior to conducting interviews, and it showed an overall good test-retest reliability performed within a one month interval. The interviews were conducted in French or Lingala, the most commonly used languages in Kinshasa, and the interviewers were provided guidance on questionnaire administration over two training sessions organized by the research team. Participants were included in the study provided that they were at least 18 years old, on ART for at least 6 months, and had given written informed consent. Participants were compensated for their time and transportation with an amount of 3 US dollars.

Measures

Primary outcome. The primary outcome of interest was adherence to ART, and was assessed using a composite measure coupling both pharmacy refill and self-reported adherence. Pharmacy refill adherence measures were shown to be reliable in assessing adherence, and to correlate well with virological and clinical outcomes in resource limited settings [39–42], and the combination with self-reported adherence performed better in predicting virological failure than other singular methods [43].

The pharmacy refill adherence in this study is based on a variation of the medication possession ratio (MPR), a measure of the proportion of days a patient has his/her medication on hand, and was calculated by dividing the number of days late for pharmacy refills by the total days on ART, and then subtracting this proportion from 100% [40,44]. We calculated the average pharmacy refill rate of adherence for each patient over the preceding six months. When applicable, the number of days being late for pharmacy refills was adjusted to account for cases where patients were provided with more medication than needed. Patients with pharmacy adherence levels <95% were categorized as non-adherent to ART [8].

To measure self-reported adherence, we adopted a validated tool that assesses adherence over the previous seven days [34]. The tool contains questions that first measure adherence over shorter time frames (yesterday and the day before yesterday), and an aided-recall question for situations that can potentially lead to missed ART doses with the intent to facilitate a more accurate reporting of the number of pills skipped during the previous seven days, and to limit the influence of forgetfulness. Self-reported non-adherence was defined as taking <95% of the prescribed pills over the previous seven days [8].

In this study, participants were categorized as non-adherent to ART when they were non-adherent to either one or both of the measures of adherence described above; otherwise, they were considered to be adherent.

Primary independent variable. Food insecurity was the primary independent variable of this study, and was measured by the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) [35]. The HFIAS is a validated instrument and has been shown to distinguish food insecure from food secure households across different cultural contexts. It is a set of nine questions designed to reflect universal domains of the experience of food insecurity including 1) anxiety and uncertainty about the household food supply, 2) insufficient quality (includes variety and preferences of the type of food), and 3) insufficient food intake and its physical consequences. We presented results in a categorical format including 1) food secure, 2) mildly food insecure 3) moderately food insecure, and 4) severely food insecure, which we dichotomized into food insecure versus food secure. The Cronbach's

alpha was 0.97, demonstrating a high internal consistency of the scale in our sample.

Other covariates. *Internalized AIDS stigma:* The Internalized AIDS-Related Stigma Scale was used to assess the internalized AIDS stigma [36]. The items were administered on a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Strongly disagree, disagree, and neutral were converted to 0 and agree and strongly agree to 1. Scale score ranged 0–6; participants who obtained relatively high scores on the scale (>2) were compared to those who had low scores (≤ 2) [45]. The scale showed a moderate degree of internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha = 0.60.

Psychological distress (Depression, anxiety disorders): Mental health status was assessed using the Kessler-6 scale, a standardized and validated screening tool for non-specific psychological distress including depression and anxiety disorders [37]. Participants were asked on a 5-points Likert scale ranging from 0 (none of the time) to 4 (all of the time) how often they felt 1) nervous, 2) hopeless, 3) restless or fidgety, 4) so depressed that nothing could cheer you up, 5) that everything was an effort, and 6) worthless. Scores equal to or higher than 13 indicate higher probability of psychological distress. There was a high internal consistency of the scale in our sample with Cronbach's alpha = 0.89.

Other variables: other covariates included the household wealth index [46], socio-demographic characteristics (10 items), HIV/AIDS disease-related variables (4 items) and HIV/AIDS knowledge (8 items), ART-related variables (8 items), perceptions about HIV/AIDS and ART (12 items), alcohol and drug use (2 items), social support [47], and perceived quality of health care (6 items) [38]. (See Text S1 for additional information on variables).

Statistical Analysis

Data was analyzed using SPSS (PASW) for Windows 17.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois, USA). Univariate analysis was conducted to obtain descriptive statistics of all the variables. Bivariate analyses were performed using Chi-square tests for categorical variables and Mann Whitney U-test for continuous variables. We included in the analysis nonresponse cases on items related to perceptions about HIV/AIDS and ART; their exclusion did not affect the results of our analysis (See Table S1, which shows frequency of nonresponse for perception items). We grouped nonresponses with participants whose answers were “disagree” and “don't know” since they were similar with respect to their odds ratios when compared to participants who agreed to the assertions. Factors associated with non-adherence by bivariate analysis with P value ≤ 0.10 and those considered epidemiologically important were entered into a multivariate logistic regression model to obtain adjusted odds ratios (AOR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI). “Frequency of ART” and “regimen drugs” were not included in the multivariate model, even though both variables had each a category with P value ≤ 0.10 , overall the two variables did not meet the inclusion criteria, and we excluded “duration of HIV infection” from the model because of its multicollinearity with “duration of ART”.

Results

Participant Characteristics

A total of 898 participants completed the study and 25 declined participation, giving a response rate of 97.3%. The median age was 44 years [Interquartile range (IQR): 38–51]. The majority of participants were female (72.2%), without standard employment (76.4%), had completed at least secondary school (75.3%), and

Christians (87.9%) by religion (Table 1). The median treatment duration was 41 months (IQR: 18–64); most participants were on first line regimens (97.9%), and on a twice a day dosing schedule (92.3%). (Table 2).

Food Insecurity and Adherence Assessment

Based on the HFIAS, 386 participants (43.0%) were classified as food secure, 9 (1.0%) as mildly food insecure, 46 (5.1%) as moderately food insecure and 457 (50.9%) as severely food insecure (See Table S2, which shows details of participants' food security status). The overall prevalence of food insecurity among our participants was 57% (Table 2). 188 (20.9%) participants were categorized as non-adherent to ART in respect to the definition of adherence described above (See Table S3, which shows details of participants' adherence status).

Bivariate Associations between Independent Variables and ART Adherence

Factors significantly associated with non-adherence in the bivariate analysis included food insecurity [odds ratio (OR), 2.25; CI, 1.58–3.19; $P = 0.000$], psychological distress (OR, 0.38; CI, 0.15–0.98; $P = 0.039$), presence of (an)other HIV-infected individual(s) in the household (OR, 0.62; CI, 0.40–0.96; $P = 0.042$), alcohol intake (OR, 1.65; CI, 1.13–2.40; $P = 0.012$), duration of ART [≥ 48 months] (OR, 1.45; CI, 1.05–2.01; $P = 0.027$), perceived ART harmfulness (OR, 1.68; CI, 1.10–2.55; $P = 0.042$), and the beliefs that God or prayers could cure HIV (OR, 2.10; CI, 1.45–3.04; $P = 0.000$), or that ART worked better when associated with prayers (OR, 1.73; CI, 1.23–2.43; $P = 0.002$), and receiving treatment from ACS/Amo-Congo (OR, 2.99; CI, 1.58–5.62; $P = 0.001$). (Table 2 & Table 3).

Table 4 shows reasons reported by participants for skipping ART doses during the previous seven days. 36 (39.5%) participants cited forgetfulness, 17 (18.6%) were unable to pay for the medical consultation or for transport, 13 (14.2%) ran out of pills, 11 (12.0%) reported lack of food, 7 (7.6%) had travelled, and other reasons were reported in much lower proportions.

Multivariate Analysis

In the multivariate analysis (Table 5), food insecurity was strongly associated with non-adherence. Food insecure participants were two times more likely to be non-adherent to ART compared to those who were food secure (AOR, 1.99; CI, 1.36–2.90, $P = 0.000$). Other factors significantly associated with non-adherence to ART included alcohol intake (AOR, 1.55; CI, 1.02–2.34, $P = 0.037$), and perceived ART harmfulness (AOR, 2.06; CI, 1.30–3.27, $P = 0.002$). Paradoxically, we found that participants who had psychological distress (depression, anxiety) as measured by the K6-scale, had lower odds of non-adherence (AOR, 0.34; CI, 0.12–0.90, $P = 0.030$), as well as those who reported that skipping ART doses could worsen the disease (AOR, 0.58; CI, 0.38–0.88, $P = 0.012$).

Discussion

Designed based on the findings of our preceding qualitative study that food insecurity is a prominent structural barrier to ART adherence [23], this study is one of the first to quantitatively demonstrate the association of food insecurity with ART nonadherence in a Sub-Saharan African country. Our findings corroborate previous qualitative studies from SSA [12,23–25], quantitative studies in resource rich settings [18–22], and recent findings from a longitudinal cohort study in rural Uganda [26].

Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics of non-adherent and adherent participants on ART recruited in Kinshasa, DRC.

	Non-Adherent (n = 188)	Adherent (n = 710)	Total (n = 898)	Crude OR (95% CI)	P value
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)		
Gender					
Male	49 (26.1)	201 (28.3)	250 (27.8)	1.00	
Female	139 (73.9)	509 (71.7)	648 (72.2)	1.12 (0.77–1.61)	0.603
Educational level					
Primary school or less	46 (24.5)	176 (24.8)	222 (24.7)	1.00	
Secondary school	110 (58.5)	420 (59.2)	530 (59.0)	1.00 (0.68–1.47)	1.000
University	32 (17.0)	114 (16.0)	146 (16.3)	1.07 (0.64–1.78)	0.885
Marital status					
Married/cohabitating	63 (33.5)	261 (36.8)	324 (36.1)	1.00	
Single	43 (22.9)	164 (23.1)	207 (23.1)	1.08 (0.70–1.67)	0.793
Divorced/Separated	29 (15.4)	83 (11.7)	112 (12.5)	1.44 (0.87–2.39)	0.191
Widowed	53 (28.2)	202 (28.4)	255 (28.4)	1.08 (0.72–1.63)	0.768
Religion					
Catholic Christian	54 (28.7)	194 (27.3)	248 (27.6)	1.00	
Protestant Christian	22 (11.7)	125 (17.6)	147 (16.4)	0.63 (0.36–1.09)	0.127
Revival churches Christian	85 (45.2)	309 (43.5)	394 (43.9)	0.98 (0.67–1.45)	1.000
Others*	27 (14.4)	82 (11.5)	109 (12.1)	1.18 (0.69–2.00)	0.627
Employment status					
Employed	37 (19.7)	175 (24.6)	212 (23.6)	1.00	
Unemployed	151 (80.3)	535 (75.4)	686 (76.4)	1.33 (0.89–1.98)	0.184
IGA					
Yes	136 (72.3)	478 (67.3)	614 (68.4)	1.00	
No	52 (27.7)	232 (32.7)	284 (31.6)	0.78 (0.55–1.12)	0.220
	Median (IQR)	Median (IQR)	Median (IQR)		
Age (years)	43 (36–50)	44 (38–51)	44 (38–51)		0.150
Household size	5 (4–7)	5 (3–7)	5 (3–7)		0.426
Financial dependents[†]	3 (1.25–5)	3 (1–5)	3 (1–5)		0.820
Household wealth index	0.08 (–2.29 to 2.55)	0.16 (–2.44 to 2.42)	0.16 (–2.43 to 2.42)		0.823

*Other: Muslim, Kimbanguist, None;

[†]number of financial dependents; ART, antiretroviral therapy; IGA, income generating activity; OR, odds ratio; IQR, inter-quartile range; DRC, Democratic Republic of Congo.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0085327.t001

Because of the cross-sectional nature of this study, interpretation of the results could be multiple. Firstly the observed association could be confounded by a third factor that was associated with both ART non-adherence and food insecurity. Secondly, we could assume that ART non-adherence was causal to food insecurity. Lastly, food insecurity could be causal to ART non-adherence.

The first possibility could be the case with poverty as a most likely confounder since prior studies have shown that trade-offs between subsistence needs and health care needs resulted in participants missing clinic visits or giving up ART for food in financially constrained individuals [24,48]. However, our results failed to support this possibility because household wealth index and employment status were not associated with ART non-adherence in bivariate analyses and our multivariate analysis was adjusted for these variables. Residual confounding of poverty due to insufficient sensitivities of these measures to rate poverty seemed unlikely because both variables were strongly associated with food insecurity ($P < 0.001$). The second possibility seemed also unlikely because such a narrative had never been documented in

qualitative studies including our study [12,23–25] and because ART non-adherence was not associated with any financial measures such as household wealth index and employment status. The third possibility is therefore most likely the case. This is strongly supported by the recent findings from a study in rural Uganda showing that food insecurity is longitudinally associated with non-adherence to ART [26] and preliminary experimental studies that showed that food supplementation improved the adherence to ART among food-insecure adults in Zambia [49,50].

However, possible mechanisms through which food insecurity could lead to ART non-adherence remained unclear. Our qualitative study identified two perceptions held by the participants as potential mechanisms including ART can be harmful or is not effective when taken without food [23]. In this study, we tested these hypotheses including the questions on participants' perception on the harmfulness or effectiveness of ART when taken without food but failed to show any association of these perceptions with ART non-adherence. Possible mechanisms may include forgetfulness. Although our study was not designed to

Table 2. Bivariate analysis of factors associated with Non-adherence to ART.

	Non-Adherent (n = 188)	Adherent (n = 710)	Total (n = 898)	Crude OR (95% CI)	p value
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)		
Food insecurity					
No	53 (28.2)	333 (46.9)	386 (43.0)	1.00	
Yes	135 (71.8)	377 (53.1)	512 (57.0)	2.25 (1.58–3.19)	0.000
Disclosure					
No	36 (19.1)	170 (24.0)	206 (22.9)	1.00	
Yes	152 (80.9)	540 (76.0)	692 (77.1)	1.32 (0.88–1.98)	0.196
Psychological distress					
No (Score:0–12)	183 (97.3)	663 (93.4)	846 (94.2)	1.00	
Yes (Score:13–24)	5 (2.7)	47 (6.6)	52 (5.8)	0.38 (0.15–0.98)	0.039
Internalized stigma					
Score:0–2	123 (65.4)	483 (68.0)	606 (67.5)	1.00	
Score:3–6	65 (34.6)	227 (32.0)	292 (32.5)	1.12 (0.80–1.57)	0.555
Social support from family					
No	96 (51.1)	417 (58.7)	513 (57.1)	1.00	
Yes	92 (48.9)	293 (41.3)	385 (42.9)	1.36 (0.98–1.88)	0.071
Social support from non-family members					
No	137 (72.9)	544 (76.6)	681 (75.8)	1.00	
Yes	51 (27.1)	166 (23.4)	217 (24.2)	1.22 (0.84–1.75)	0.331
Opportunistic infection					
No	181 (96.3)	683 (96.2)	864 (96.2)	1.00	
Yes	7 (3.7)	27 (3.8)	34 (3.8)	0.97 (0.41–2.28)	1.000
HIV-infected individual(s) in the household					
No	160 (85.1)	554 (78.0)	714 (79.5)	1.00	
Yes	28 (14.9)	156 (22.0)	184 (20.5)	0.62 (0.40–0.96)	0.042
Alcohol intake*					
No	139 (73.9)	585 (82.4)	724 (80.6)	1.00	
Yes	49 (26.1)	125 (17.6)	174 (19.4)	1.65 (1.13–2.40)	0.012
Tobacco smoking					
No	179 (95.2)	680 (95.8)	859 (95.7)	1.00	
Yes	9 (4.8)	30 (4.2)	39 (4.3)	1.14 (0.53–2.44)	0.893
Knowledge of HIV/AIDS					
Good (≥ 5)	164 (87.2)	622 (87.6)	786 (87.5)	1.00	
Poor (≤ 4)	24 (12.8)	88 (12.4)	112 (12.5)	1.03 (0.63–1.67)	0.990
Regimen					
1st line	184 (97.9)	695 (97.9)	879 (97.9)	1.00	
2nd line	4 (2.1)	15 (2.1)	19 (2.1)	1.00 (0.33–3.07)	1.000
Regimen drugs					
3TC+TDF+EFV or NVP	10 (5.3)	67 (9.4)	77 (8.6)	1.00	
3TC+AZT+EFV or NVP or LPV/rit	165 (87.8)	575 (81.0)	740 (82.4)	1.92 (0.96–3.82)	0.080
3TC+D4T+EFV or NVP	9 (4.8)	53 (7.5)	62 (6.9)	1.13 (0.43–3.00)	0.990
ABC+DDI+LPV/r	4 (2.1)	15 (2.1)	19 (2.1)	1.78 (0.49–6.47)	0.597
Pill burden					
1–4	169 (89.9)	650 (91.5)	819 (91.2)	1.00	
≥ 5	19 (10.1)	60 (8.5)	79 (8.8)	1.21 (0.70–2.09)	0.570
Frequency of ART					
Once/day	5 (2.7)	45 (6.3)	50 (5.6)	1.00	
Twice/day	179 (95.2)	650 (91.5)	829 (92.3)	2.47 (0.96–6.33)	0.075

Table 2. Cont.

	Non-Adherent (n = 188)	Adherent (n = 710)	Total (n = 898)	Crude OR (95% CI)	p value
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)		
Thrice/day	4 (2.1)	15 (2.1)	19 (2.1)	2.40 (0.56–10.11)	0.247
Refill Schedule					
Every 2 or 3 months	43 (22.9)	204 (28.7)	247 (27.5)	1.00	
Every month	145 (77.1)	506 (71.3)	651 (72.5)	1.35 (0.93–1.98)	0.132
Duration of HIV infection					
<48 months	76 (40.4)	342 (48.2)	418 (46.5)	1.00	
≥48 months	112 (59.6)	368 (51.8)	480 (53.5)	1.37 (0.98–1.89)	0.070
Median (IQR)	48 (24–72)	48 (24–72)	48 (24–72)		
Duration of ART					
<48 months	94 (50.0)	421 (59.3)	515 (57.3)	1.00	
≥48 months	94 (50.0)	289 (40.7)	383 (42.7)	1.45 (1.05–2.01)	0.027
Median (IQR)	48.5(24–72)	40 (18–62)	41 (18–64)		
Perceived quality of care					
Not satisfied (0–2)	10 (5.3)	23 (3.2)	33 (3.7)	1.00	
Moderately satisfied (3–4)	22 (11.7)	86 (12.1)	108 (12.0)	0.58 (0.24–1.41)	0.340
Highly satisfied (5–6)	156 (83.0)	601 (84.6)	757 (84.3)	0.59 (0.27–1.28)	0.263
Treatment sites					
HPGRK	13 (6.9)	86 (12.1)	99 (11.0)	1.00	
ACS/AMO CONGO	94 (50.0)	208 (29.3)	302 (33.6)	2.99 (1.58–5.62)	0.001
MONKOLE	35 (18.6)	165 (23.2)	200 (22.3)	1.40 (0.70–2.79)	0.423
ARMEE DU SALUT	46 (24.5)	251 (35.4)	297 (33.1)	1.21 (0.62–2.35)	0.684
Travel time (in hours)[†]					
<1	103 (54.8)	398 (56.1)	501 (55.8)	1.00	
1–<2	66 (35.1)	251 (35.3)	317 (35.3)	1.01 (0.71–1.43)	0.999
≥2	19 (10.1)	61 (8.6)	80 (8.9)	1.20 (0.68–2.10)	0.615

*Defined as alcohol consumption at least once a month;

[†]travel time from home to health facility expressed in hour(s); ART, antiretroviral therapy; OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; 3TC = Lamivudine; TDF = Tenofovir; EFV = Efavirenz; NVP = Nevirapine; AZT = Zidovudine; LPV/r = Lopinavir/Ritonavir, D4T = Stavudine, ABC = Abacavir; DDI = Didanosine; IQR, inter-quartile range; HPGRK, Hopital Provincial General de Référence de Kinshasa; ACS/AMO Congo, Actions Communautaires Sida/Avenir meilleur pour les orphelins.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0085327.t002

compare participants' forgetfulness between the non-adherent and adherent groups as it was asked only as a branch question to the participants who reported ART non-adherence, forgetfulness was cited as one of the most frequent reasons for skipping ART doses in this study. In a qualitative study in Uganda, participants reported forgetting their daily ART doses as a result of spending most of their time working to obtain food [24], suggesting that food insecure individuals may particularly be prone to forgetfulness. In future studies, this hypothesis should be tested by introducing the question on general forgetfulness on daily ART doses for both groups as well as the question on food insecurity and creating an interaction term between the two.

Whatever the exact mechanism, however, the implications of the results of this study could be far-reaching, considering the vast number of people suffering from food insecurity and the estimated 6 million of people living with HIV on ART treatment in SSA [1,31], and the fact that food insecurity disproportionately affects HIV-infected individuals [51–54]. In our study, over half (57%) of our participants were food insecure and alarmingly, most of them were severely insecure, a rate much higher than that previously reported in the general population in Kinshasa City [32]. In view

of the threat of food insecurity to the long-term success of HIV/AIDS treatment programs in SSA, which hosts the largest number of people on and in need of ART, with a very restricted access to second or third line therapy [1], it is crucial to integrate food security strategies into HIV treatment programs [55,56]. Though, clinic-based short-term intervention studies in SSA have shown promising results for improving patient adherence to ART using food assistance [49,50]; in order to be sustainable over time, such intervention should be built on a clear understanding of context-specific determinants of food insecurity, and packaged into a holistic approach that takes into account local socio-cultural and structural correlates of ART adherence.

Besides food insecurity our study identified a number of factors associated with ART non-adherence. Consistent with prior studies [57,58], participants who perceived that ART was harmful had higher odds of non-adherence. Most of them believed so because of ART-related side effects, or the fact that ART was a life-long medication. We observed an association between alcohol use and non-adherence to ART. Participants who reported consuming alcohol at least once a month had a 50% increased odds of being non-adherent to ART. This is consistent with previous studies

Table 3. Perceptions about HIV/AIDS and ART.

	Non-Adherent (n = 188)	Adherent (n = 710)	Total (n = 898)	Crude OR (95% CI)	P value
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)		
<i>Sociocultural/Religious beliefs</i>					
God/prayer can cure HIV					
Agree	143 (76.1)	427 (60.1)	570 (63.5)	2.10 (1.45–3.04)	0.000
Else	45 (23.9)	283 (39.1)	328 (36.5)	1.00	
Traditional healers/medicine can cure HIV					
Agree	9 (4.8)	35 (4.9)	44 (4.9)	0.97 (0.45–2.05)	1.000
Else	179 (95.2)	675 (95.1)	854 (95.1)	1.00	
ART works better when combined with prayers					
Agree	126 (67.0)	383 (53.9)	509 (56.7)	1.73 (1.23–2.43)	0.002
Else	62 (33.0)	327 (46.1)	389 (43.3)	1.00	
<i>Perceptions about ART and food</i>					
ART is not necessary without food					
Agree	37 (19.7)	154 (21.7)	191 (21.3)	0.88 (0.59–1.32)	0.618
Else	151 (80.3)	556 (78.3)	707 (78.7)	1.00	
ART is not effective without food					
Agree	20 (10.6)	77 (10.8)	97 (10.8)	0.97 (0.58–1.64)	1.000
Else	168 (89.4)	633 (89.2)	801 (89.2)	1.00	
ART can be harmful without food					
Agree	58 (30.9)	220 (31.0)	278 (31.0)	0.99 (0.79–1.40)	1.000
Else	130 (69.1)	490 (69.0)	620 (69.0)	1.00	
<i>Perceptions about ART adherence</i>					
Short treatment interruption is not harmful to a long-term ART user					
Agree	10 (5.3)	71 (10.0)	81 (9.0)	0.50 (0.25–1.00)	0.064
Else	178 (94.7)	639 (90.0)	817 (91.0)	1.00	
Skiping few ART doses is not harmful to a long-term ART user					
Agree	10 (5.3)	48 (6.8)	58 (6.5)	0.77 (0.38–1.56)	0.584
Else	178 (94.7)	662 (93.2)	840 (93.5)	1.00	
Skiping ART doses can worsen the disease					
Agree	135 (71.8)	434 (61.1)	569 (63.4)	0.69 (0.46–1.03)	0.087
Else	53 (28.2)	276 (38.9)	329 (36.6)	1.00	
ART should be taken life-long					
Agree	172 (91.5)	651 (91.7)	823 (91.6)	1.00 (0.45–2.23)	1.000
Else	16 (8.5)	59 (8.3)	75 (8.4)	1.00	
<i>Perceptions about ART</i>					
Perceived effectiveness of ART					
Yes	176 (93.6)	630 (88.7)	806 (89.8)	1.86 (0.99–3.49)	0.067
No	12 (6.4)	80 (11.3)	92 (10.2)	1.00	
Perceived ART harmfulness					
Yes	29 (15.4)	70 (9.9)	99 (11.0)	1.68 (1.10–2.55)	0.042
No	159 (84.6)	640 (90.1)	799 (89.0)	1.00	

ART, antiretroviral therapy; OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0085327.t003

showing that alcohol use negatively affected patient adherence even for moderate levels of consumption [59,60]. Our findings also indicated that participants who were on ART for more than 4 years were more likely to be non-adherent compared to those who

were placed on ART since less than 4 years. Although this was only significant in bivariate analysis, it still supports previous studies showing that adherence decreases over time [61,62]. Contrary to previous studies [63–65], we found that participants

Table 4. Reasons for missing ART doses during the previous seven days.

Reason	Frequency (n = 91)	%
Forgetfulness	36	39.5
Unable to pay for transport/ medical consultation	17	18.6
Ran out of pills	13	14.2
Lack of food	11	12
Travel	7	7.6
Pill fatigue	3	3.2
Alcohol	2	2.1
Away from home	2	2.1
Side effects	1	1.1
Felt tired	1	1.1
Felt depressed	1	1.1
Fell asleep	1	1.1

ART, antiretroviral therapy; Multiple responses are possible.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0085327.t004

with psychological distress (depression, anxiety) had better adherence compared to those who did not have psychological distress. This uncommon association of psychological distress with better adherence merits further investigation: it is possible that efforts to sustaining ART adherence may over the long-term be source of psychological distress among some patients in the context of DRC, as a result of economic demands and/or sociocultural constraints around antiretroviral medication. Furthermore, a confounding personality trait associated with both psychological

distress and ART non-adherence may also explain the observed association. Lastly, it may also be due to the nature of the K-6 scale, which was only validated in a general population in developed settings [37,66,67] but never tested among poor individuals with HIV in developing countries.

This study has both limitations and strengths. First we cannot assume causality of the statistically significant associations with ART adherence in this study given its cross-sectional design. It is possible that unknown or unmeasured factors could have confounded the estimates of the observed associations in our results. Second, results could be biased by socially desirable answers especially in reporting of missed medication pills in the self-reported assessment of ART adherence since the interviews were conducted by health care workers. In order to minimize this potential bias, interviewers were provided extensive training to process the survey questionnaire in a non-judgmental manner and we used a composite measure coupling both subjective (self-reported adherence) and objective (pharmacy refill adherence) measures to assess the overall adherence. On the other hand the strengths of this study include that it is rooted in the results of our qualitative study on patients on ART treatment, retreatment and lost to follow up [23]. In addition, this study derives its data from a large sample of participants selected from geographically diversified recruitment sites, including both public and private health facilities in Kinshasa, DRC. The results of this study therefore may to large extent represent the situation of patients on ART treatment in Kinshasa. However, caution is warranted in generalizing the findings of this study to a broader population. Educational attainment of our sample was higher than the general population of the DRC. Although this could reflect the general trend of HIV prevalence being higher in wealthier socio-economic

Table 5. Multivariate analysis of factors associated with non-adherence to ART.

	Adjusted OR	95% CI	P value
Food insecurity yes (vs no)	1.99	1.36–2.90	0.000
Alcohol intake yes (vs no)	1.55	1.02–2.34	0.037
Internalized stigma score:3–6 (vs score:0–2)	1.11	0.76–1.61	0.571
Social support from family yes (vs no)	1.26	0.90–1.78	0.174
Psychological distress yes (vs no)	0.34	0.12–0.90	0.030
Duration of ART ≥48 months (vs <48 months)	1.27	0.90–1.80	0.170
Perceived ART harmfulness yes (vs no)	2.06	1.30–3.27	0.002
Perceived effectiveness of ART yes (vs no)	1.19	0.16–8.93	0.859
Short treatment interruption is not harmful to a long-term ART user Agree (vs else)	0.55	0.27–1.14	0.110
Skipping ART doses can worsen the disease Agree (vs else)	0.58	0.38–0.88	0.012
God/prayer can cure HIV/AIDS Agree (vs else)	1.48	0.92–2.37	0.098
ART works better when combined with prayer Agree (vs else)	1.01	0.64–1.59	0.952
HIV-infected person(s) in the household Yes (vs no)	0.72	0.45–1.15	0.173
Treatment sites			
HPGRK	1.00		
ACS/AMO CONGO	1.87	0.26–13.34	0.531
MONKOLE	0.98	0.13–7.07	0.988
ARMEE DU SALUT	0.77	0.10–5.47	0.798

ART, antiretroviral therapy; OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; HPGRK, Hopital Provincial General de Référence de Kinshasa; ACS/AMO CONGO, Actions Communautaires Sida/Avenir Meilleur pour les Orphelins.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0085327.t005

groups [68], it may also be due to the fact that Kinshasa is the country's capital and holds a more educated population.

In summary, we found that food insecurity is a significant risk factor for non-adherence to ART, and is highly prevalent among HIV-infected individuals in Kinshasa, DRC. There is urgent need of integrating effective food security strategies into HIV treatment and care programs to ensure patient adherence to ART and ultimately long-term success of HIV treatment in SSA.

Supporting Information

Table S1 Frequency of nonresponse: Perceptions about HIV/AIDS and ART.

(DOC)

Table S2 Participants' food security status based on the HFIAS.

(DOC)

References

1. Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (2012) Global Report: UNAIDS Report on the Global AIDS Epidemic 2012 Available: http://www.unaids.org/en/media/unaids/contentassets/documents/epidemiology/2012/gr2012/20121120_UNAIDS_Global_Report_2012_with_annexes_en.pdf. Accessed 2013 Apr 25.
2. Mills EJ, Bakanda C, Birungi J, Chan K, Ford N, et al. (2011) Life expectancy of persons receiving combination antiretroviral therapy in low-income countries: a cohort analysis from Uganda. *Ann Intern Med* 155: 209–216.
3. Brinkhof MW, Boule A, Weigel R, Messou E, Mathers C, et al. (2009) Mortality of HIV-infected patients starting antiretroviral therapy in sub-Saharan Africa: comparison with HIV-unrelated mortality. *PLoS Med* 6: e1000066. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1000066.
4. Cohen MS, Chen YQ, McCauley M, Gamble T, Hosseinipour MC, et al. (2011) Prevention of HIV-1 infection with early antiretroviral therapy. *N Engl J Med* 365: 493–505.
5. Baeten JM, Donnell D, Ndase P, Mugo NR, Campbell JD, et al. (2012) Antiretroviral prophylaxis for HIV prevention in heterosexual men and women. *N Engl J Med* 365: 399–410.
6. Tanser F, Barnighausen T, Grapsa E, Zaidi J, Newell ML (2013) High coverage of ART associated with decline in risk of HIV acquisition in rural KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. *Science* 339: 966–971.
7. Sethi AK, Celentano DD, Gange SJ, Moore RD, Gallant JE (2003) Association between adherence to antiretroviral therapy and human immunodeficiency virus drug resistance. *Clin Infect Dis* 37: 1112–1118.
8. Paterson DL, Swindells S, Mohr J, Brester M, Vergis EN, et al. (2000) Adherence to protease inhibitor therapy and outcomes in patients with HIV infection. *Ann Intern Med* 133: 21–30.
9. Lima VD, Harrigan R, Bangsberg DR, Hogg RS, Gross R, et al. (2009) The combined effect of modern highly active antiretroviral therapy regimens and adherence on mortality over time. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr* 50: 529–536.
10. Balcha TT, Jeppsson A, Bekele A (2011) Barriers to antiretroviral treatment in Ethiopia: a qualitative study. *J Int Assoc Physicians AIDS Care* 10: 119–125.
11. Curioso W, Kepka D, Cabello R, Segura P, Kurth A (2010) Understanding the facilitators and barriers of antiretroviral adherence in Peru: a qualitative study. *BMC Public Health* 10: 13.
12. Sanjobo N, Frich JC, Fretheim A (2008) Barriers and facilitators to patients' adherence to antiretroviral treatment in Zambia: a qualitative study. *SAHARA J* 5: 136–143.
13. Tuller DM, Bangsberg DR, Senkungu J, Ware NC, Emenyonu N, et al. (2009) Transportation costs impede sustained adherence and access to HAART in a clinic population in southwestern Uganda: a qualitative study. *AIDS Behav* 14: 778–784.
14. Mills EJ, Nachega JB, Bangsberg DR, Singh S, Rachlis B, et al. (2006) Adherence to HAART: a systematic review of developed and developing nation patient-reported barriers and facilitators. *PLoS Med* 3(11): e438. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.0030438.
15. Tsai AC, Bangsberg DR (2011) The importance of social ties in sustaining medication adherence in resource-limited settings. *J Gen Intern Med* 26: 1391–1393.
16. Ware NC, Idoko J, Kaaya S, Biraro IA, Wyatt MA, et al. (2009) Explaining adherence success in sub-Saharan Africa: an ethnographic study. *PLoS Med* 6(1): e1000011. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1000011.
17. Wanyama J, Castelnovo B, Wandera B, Mwebaze P, Kambugu A, et al. (2007) Belief in divine healing can be a barrier to antiretroviral therapy adherence in Uganda. *AIDS* 21: 1486–1487.
18. Weiser SD, Fernandes KA, Anema A, Brandson EK, Lima VD, et al. (2009) Food insecurity as a barrier to antiretroviral adherence among HIV-infected individuals in British Columbia. Presented at: 5th International AIDS Society (IAS) conference on HIV pathogenesis, treatment and prevention. Cape Town, South Africa. Available: http://caps.ucsf.edu/uploads/pubs/presentations/pdf/Weiser1_IAS09.pdf. Accessed 2011 Jun 20.
19. Weiser S, Frongillo E, Ragland K, Hogg R, Riley E, et al. (2009) Food insecurity is associated with incomplete HIV RNA suppression among homeless and marginally housed HIV-infected individuals in San Francisco. *J Gen Intern Med* 24: 14–20.
20. Kalichman S, Cherry C, Amaral C, White D, Kalichman M, et al. (2010) Health and treatment implications of food insufficiency among people living with HIV/AIDS, Atlanta, Georgia. *J Urban Health* 87: 631–641.
21. Kalichman S, Pellowski J, Kalichman M, Cherry C, Detorio M, et al. (2011) Food insufficiency and medication adherence among people living with HIV/AIDS in urban and peri-urban settings. *Prevention Science* 12: 324–332.
22. Peretti-Watel P, Spire B, Schiltz MA, Bouhnik AD, Heard I, et al. (2006) Vulnerability, unsafe sex and non-adherence to HAART: evidence from a large sample of French HIV/AIDS outpatients. *Soc Sci Med* 62: 2420–2433.
23. Musumari PM, Feldman MD, Techasrivichien T, Wouters E, Ono-Kihara M, et al. (2013) "If I have nothing to eat, I get angry and push the pills bottle away from me": A qualitative study of patient determinants of adherence to antiretroviral therapy in the Democratic Republic of Congo. *AIDS Care* <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09540121.2013.764391>.
24. Weiser SD, Tuller DM, Frongillo EA, Senkungu J, Mukibi N, et al. (2010) Food insecurity as a barrier to sustained antiretroviral therapy adherence in Uganda. *PLoS One* 5(4): e10340. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0010340.
25. Hardon AP, Akurut D, Comoro C, Ekezie C, Irunde HF, et al. (2007) Hunger, waiting time and transport costs: time to confront challenges to ART adherence in Africa. *AIDS Care* 19: 658–665.
26. Weiser SD, Palar K, Frongillo EA, Tsai AC, Kumbakumba E, et al. (2013) Longitudinal assessment of associations between food insecurity, antiretroviral adherence and HIV treatment outcomes in rural Uganda. *AIDS* 27: 000–000.
27. Wang E, McGinnis K, Fiellin D, Goulet J, Bryant K, et al. (2011) Food insecurity is associated with poor virologic response among HIV-infected patients receiving antiretroviral medications. *J Gen Intern Med* 26: 1012–1018.
28. Weiser SD, Fernandes KA, Brandson EK, Lima VD, Anema A, et al. (2009) The association between food insecurity and mortality among HIV-infected individuals on HAART. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr* 52: 342–349.
29. World Bank and UNAIDS (2009) The Global Economic Crisis and HIV Prevention and Treatment Programmes: Vulnerabilities and Impact. Available: http://www.unaids.org/en/media/unaids/contentassets/dataimport/pub/report/2009/jc1734_econ_crisis_hiv_response_en.pdf. Accessed 2013 Feb 17.
30. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (2012) The state of food insecurity in the world: Economic growth is necessary but not sufficient to accelerate reduction of hunger and malnutrition. Available: <http://www.fao.org/docrep/016/i3027e/i3027e.pdf>. Accessed 2013 Jan 25.
31. Institut National de la Statistique et Fonds des Nations Unies pour l'Enfance (National Institut of Statistics and United Nations Children's Fund) (2011) Enquête par Grappes à Indicateurs Multiples en République Démocratique du Congo 2010: Rapport Final (Democratic Republic of Congo Multiple Indicators Cluster Survey 2010: Final Report) Available: http://www.childinfo.org/files/MICS-RDC_2010_Final_Report_FR.pdf. Accessed 2012 Nov 20.
32. Programme National Multisectoriel de lutte contre le VIH/SIDA (National Multi-sectoral Programme on HIV/AIDS) (2012) Rapport d'activité sur la riposte au VIH/SIDA en République Démocratique du Congo (Country Progress Report on HIV/AIDS Response). Available: [http://www.unaids.org/en/dataanalysis/knownyourresponse/countryprogressreports/2012countries/ce_CD_Narrative_Report\[1\].pdf](http://www.unaids.org/en/dataanalysis/knownyourresponse/countryprogressreports/2012countries/ce_CD_Narrative_Report[1].pdf). Accessed 2012 Dec 12.
33. Young S, Wheeler AC, McCoy SL, Weiser SD (2013) A review of the role of food insecurity in adherence to care and treatment among adult and pediatric

- populations living with HIV and AIDS. *AIDS Behav* doi:10.1007/s10461-013-0547-4.
34. Godin G, Gagne C, Naccache H (2003) Validation of a self-reported questionnaire assessing adherence to antiretroviral medication. *AIDS Patient Care STDS* 17: 325–332.
 35. Coates J, Swindale A, Bilinsky P (2007) *Household Food Insecurity Access scale (HFIAS) for Measurement of Food Access: Indicator guide*. Washington, DC: Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project, Academy for Educational Development.
 36. Kalichman SC, Simbayi LC, Cloete A, Mthembu PP, Mkhonta RN, et al. (2009) Measuring AIDS stigmas in people living with HIV/AIDS: the internalized AIDS-related stigma scale. *AIDS Care* 21: 87–93.
 37. Kessler RC, Green JG, Gruber MJ, Sampson NA, Bromet E, et al. (2010) Screening for serious mental illness in the general population with the K6 screening scale: results from the WHO World Mental Health (WMH) survey initiative. *Int J Methods Psychiatr Res* (Suppl 19): 4–22.
 38. Wouters E, Heunis C, van Rensburg D, Meulemans H (2008) Patient satisfaction with antiretroviral services at primary health-care facilities in the Free State, South Africa - a two-year study using four waves of cross-sectional data. *BMC Health Serv Res* 8: 210.
 39. McMahon JH, Jordan MR, Kelley K, Bertagnolio S, Hong SY, et al. (2011) Pharmacy adherence measures to assess adherence to antiretroviral therapy: review of the literature and implications for treatment monitoring. *Clin Infect Dis* 52: 493–506.
 40. Chi BH, Cantrell RA, Zulu I, Mulenga LB, Levy JW, et al. (2009) Adherence to first-line antiretroviral therapy affects non-virologic outcomes among patients on treatment for more than 12 months in Lusaka, Zambia. *Int J Epidemiology* 38: 746–756.
 41. Bisson GP, Gross R, Bellamy S, Chittams J, Hislop M, et al. (2008) Pharmacy refill adherence compared with CD4 count changes for monitoring HIV-infected adults on antiretroviral therapy. *PLoS Med* 5(5): e109. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.0050109.
 42. Weidle PJ, Wamai N, Solberg P, Liechty C, Sendagala S, et al. (2006) Adherence to antiretroviral therapy in a home-based AIDS care programme in rural Uganda. *Lancet* 368: 1587–1594.
 43. Nguyen H, Zyl GV, Geboers D, Gross R, Mills EJ, et al. (2011) Pharmacy refill data combined with self-report adherence questions improves prediction of boosted protease inhibitor regimen failure. Presented at: 6th International Conference on HIV Treatment and Prevention Adherence. Miami, USA.
 44. Goldman JD, Cantrell RA, Mulenga LB, Tambatamba BC, Reid SE, et al. (2008) Simple adherence assessments to predict virologic failure among HIV-infected adults with discordant immunologic and clinical responses to antiretroviral therapy. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses* 24: 1031–1035.
 45. Peltzer K, Ramlagan S (2011) Perceived stigma among patients receiving antiretroviral therapy: a prospective study in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. *AIDS Care* 23: 60–68.
 46. Filmer D, Pritchett LH (2001) Estimating wealth effects without expenditure data—or tears: an application to educational enrollments in states of India. *Demography* 38(1): 115–132.
 47. Heaney CA, Israel BA (2008) Social networks and social support. In: Glanz K, Rimer BK, Viswanath K. *Health Behavior and Health Education*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons. 189–210.
 48. Weiser SD, Tsai AC, Gupta R, Frongillo EA, Kawuma A, et al. (2012) Food insecurity is associated with morbidity and patterns of healthcare utilization among HIV-infected individuals in a resource-poor setting. *AIDS* 26: 67–75.
 49. Cantrell RA, Sinkala M, Megazinni K, Lawson-Marriott S, Washington S, et al. (2008) A pilot study of food supplementation to improve adherence to antiretroviral therapy among food-insecure adults in Lusaka, Zambia. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr* 49: 190–195.
 50. Tirivayi N, Koethe JR, Groot W (2012) Clinic-based food assistance is associated with increased medication adherence among HIV-infected adults on long-term antiretroviral in Zambia. *J AIDS Clin Res* 3(7): 171.
 51. Tsai AC, Bangsberg DR, Emenyonu N, Senkungu JK, Martin JN, et al. (2011) The social context of food insecurity among persons living with HIV/AIDS in rural Uganda. *Soc Sci Med* 73: 1717–1724.
 52. Tiyou A, Belachew T, Alemseged F, Biadgilign S (2012) Food insecurity and associated factors among HIV-infected individuals receiving highly active antiretroviral therapy in Jimma zone Southwest Ethiopia. *Nutrition Journal* 11: 51.
 53. Weiser SD, Hatcher A, Frongillo EA, Guzman D, Riley ED, et al. (2013) Food Insecurity Is Associated with Greater Acute Care Utilization among HIV-Infected Homeless and Marginally Housed Individuals in San Francisco. *J Gen Intern Med* 28: 91–98.
 54. Anema A, Weiser SD, Fernandes KA, Ding E, Brandson EK, et al. (2011) High prevalence of food insecurity among HIV-infected individuals receiving HAART in a resource-rich setting. *AIDS Care* 23: 221–230.
 55. World Food Programme (2003) Programming in the Era of AIDS: WFP's Response to HIV/AIDS. Available: <http://www.wfp.org/sites/default/files/Programming%20in%20the%20Era%20of%20AIDS%20WFP's%20Response%20to%20HIV/AIDS.pdf>. Accessed 2012 Nov 11.
 56. United Nations. Nutrition and HIV/AIDS. Statement by the Administrative Committee on Coordination, Sub-Committee on Nutrition as its 28th Session. Nairobi, Kenya: United Nations Administrative Committee on Coordination, Sub-Committee on Nutrition; 2001. Available: http://www.unscn.org/files/Annual_Sessions/28th_SCN_Session/28th_session_REPORT.pdf. Accessed 2012 Dec 3.
 57. Johnston BE, Ahmad K, Smith C, Rose DN (1998) Adherence to highly active antiretroviral therapy among HIV-infected patients of the inner city. Presented at: 12th World AIDS Conference. Geneva, Switzerland.
 58. Horne R, Weinman J (1999) Patients' beliefs about prescribed medicines and their role in adherence to treatment in chronic physical illness. *Journal of Psychosom Res* 47(6): 555–567.
 59. Wasti SP, Simkhada P, Randall J, Freeman JV, van Teijlingen E (2012) Factors Influencing Adherence to Antiretroviral Treatment in Nepal: A Mixed-Methods Study. *PLoS One* 7: e35547.
 60. Jacquet A, Ekouevi DK, Bashi J, Aboubakrine M, Messou E, et al. (2009) Alcohol use and adherence to antiretroviral therapy in HIV-infected patients in West Africa. Presented at: 5th International AIDS Society (IAS) conference on HIV pathogenesis, treatment and prevention. Cape Town, South Africa. Available: <http://www.iasociety.org/Default.aspx?pageId=11&abstractId=200721856>. Accessed 2012 Jan 12.
 61. Nemes MI, Carvalho HcB, Souza MF (2004) Antiretroviral therapy adherence in Brazil. *AIDS* 18: S15–S20.
 62. Godin G, Cote J, Naccache H, Lambert LD, Trottier S (2005) Prediction of adherence to antiretroviral therapy: a one year longitudinal study. *AIDS Care* 17: 493–504.
 63. Nel A, Kagee A (2013) The relationship between depression, anxiety and medication adherence among patients receiving antiretroviral treatment in South Africa. *AIDS Care* 8: 948–955.
 64. Campos L, Guimaraes M, Remien R (2008) Anxiety and Depression Symptoms as risk factors for non-adherence to antiretroviral therapy in Brazil. *AIDS Behav* 14: 289–299.
 65. Molassiotis A, Nahas-Lopez V, Chung WYR, Lam SWC, Li CKP, et al. (2002) Factors associated with adherence to antiretroviral medication in HIV-infected patients. *Int J STD AIDS* 13: 301–310.
 66. Furukawa TA, Kessler RC, Slade T, Andrews G (2003) The performance of the K6 and K10 screening scales for psychological distress in the Australian National Survey of Mental Health and Well-Being. *Psychol Med* 33: 357–362.
 67. Andersen LS, Grimsrud A, Myer L, Williams DR, Stein DJ, et al. (2011) The psychometric properties of the K10 and K6 scales in screening for mood and anxiety disorders in the South African Stress and Health study. *Int J Methods Res* 20: 215–223.
 68. Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS & World Health Organization (2009) AIDS Epidemic update. Available: http://data.unaids.org/pub/Report/2009/JC1700_Epi_Update_2009_en.pdf. Accessed 2012 Mar 23.